

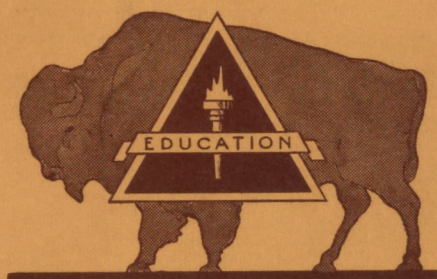
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# Teaching Staff

## SESSION 1956-57

### FULL TIME

Dean M. E. LaZerte .....	{ Educational Psychology Teaching of Mathematics
Professor J. M. Brown .....	{ History of Education Philosophy of Education School Administration Educational Sociology
Associate Professor Eleanor Boyce ..	{ Children's Literature English Social Studies
Associate Professor W. H. Lucow .....	{ Educational Psychology Mathematics Science Tests and Measurement
Associate Professor Doris Baker .....	{ Primary Methods Health Social Studies

### PART TIME

Mr. Nikola Bjelajac .....	Art (VII-XII)
Miss Beth Douglas .....	Music (I-VI)
Miss Ella George .....	Art (I-VI)
Mr. Filmer Hubble .....	Music (VII-XII)
Professor W. H. Hugill .....	Classics
Professor W. T. R. Kennedy .....	Physical Education
Assistant Professor S. D. Nalevykin .....	Physical Education
Associate Professor M. E. J. Richard .....	Modern Languages
Mrs. Isobel Richard .....	Speech Training
Professor A. S. R. Tweedie .....	Adult Education
Mr. B. Scott Bateman and others from Department of Education— School Administration	







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# In Memoriam

THOMAS A. McMASTER

ERNEST H. REID

# Editorial

September, 1956, brought to the University campus an entirely new Faculty of Education staff that included Miss Doris Baker, Dr. John Brown, Dr. Eleanor Boyce, Dr. W. H. Lucow and Dean M. E. LaZerte. All members of this group have had long and varied experience. On them now falls the responsibility of continuing all that is good in former practice and of expanding programs that will maintain the Faculty's position as a leader in teacher education and training. Policies of former years are being continued with as few interruptions and changes as possible; changes, when introduced, are aimed at consolidation of offerings, reduction of overlappings and the organization of patterned programs that can be successfully administered by the present small staff.

Teachers-in-service will meet staff members during off-campus and summer session courses. No recital of qualifications, experience, and interests need be given now. It is fitting, however, that we take this opportunity to tell you about a few changes around the Faculty housed in Hut J.

## *Course Papers*

The fourteen hundred teachers with course papers outstanding have been given until March 31st, 1957, to complete and file them for acceptance. This date must be adhered to rigidly in spite of the fact that Faculty members regret that any pressure in this matter was found to be necessary. The course paper procedure had great merit but students failed to use it in ways intended by its author. All courses of the 1957 summer session are scheduled for two hours per lecture day and all end with a written final examination on or about August 15th.

## *B.Ed. Programs*

There have been but few changes in B.Ed. regulations. Candidates are advised to include one or two Arts and Science courses to strengthen favored teaching subjects to the extent that this is possible while obtaining credit in M.Ed. prerequisites. These now include certain specified courses in philosophy, psychology, political science and sociology.

## *M.Ed. Programs*

Master of Education programs have been patterned a little more than formerly. While provision is made for programs to meet individual needs, it is assumed that most candidates will elect one of the five programs outlined in detail in the calendar. For each of these five programs there are prerequisite and required courses supplemented by options. A third route to the M.Ed. degree has been authorized, a route by which a student may qualify for the



degree by obtaining credit in five M.Ed. courses and standing in one written examination in the subject of major teaching interest. In two of the five patterns and in the five-courses-one-examination-paper route, emphasis is placed on mastery of subject matter of Arts and Science courses and on the methodology of instruction therein.

#### *Ph.D.*

No further registrations will be accepted in beginning Ph.D. programs until additional members can be added to the instructional staff.

#### *Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research*

Before registering in the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research a candidate will normally complete requirements for the B.Ed. degree. "Dangling credits" may not be held in storage for later use.

You are invited to telephone 449250 for an appointment with the Dean to discuss either your problems or Faculty of Education business. The Faculty believes that the greatest educational problem in Canada today is the selection, education and retention of a highly efficient group of teachers. The Faculty hopes to participate effectively in helping to solve that problem for Manitoba.

M. E. L.

# The Place of the Public School in Our Society

Sybil F. Shack



The Place of the Public School in Our Society. This subject is so broad, it has so many ramifications, and it can be approached from so many directions that perhaps I should begin with a statement of what I cannot hope to do. Even if I had the knowledge and the ability I could not hope to deal with the whole subject in one short hour. Therefore it has been necessary to limit myself severely. This then will not be a learned study; it will have no large bibliography, and few quotations from experts. Nor can I pretend that it will be a highly intellectual and completely objective study. These things you will, of course, have realized after a few minutes of listening; but I feel that I should justify, or at least explain, my approach to the subject.

With interest so closely focused on the schools, thousands upon thousands of words have been written in the past few years on the subject I have chosen for today's address. Some of them have appeared in large, stiff-covered books with pretentious titles and long lists of "authorities." Some have been written in smaller, more select volumes bearing the names of great thinkers far removed from the hurly-burly of the schoolroom. Many thousands have been poured out into the columns of journals (learned and popular), pamphlets, radio and television scripts, sermons of preachers, and diatribes of service club speakers. Some have even found their humble way into pupils' report cards when teacher has written: "Johnny should do easy reading at home," or Father has painstakingly penned, "Why can't you teach Jimmy nothing in school?" To attempt to select from this vast reservoir of material a representative sampling to be presented to you in an hour would be to do the subject less than justice. To suggest that I or any other single individual can make a final statement on it is ludicrous. Moreover—and I make this confession without apology—I cannot be objective about my topic. If I were to pretend that I am I should be dishonest, and you would not be deceived. I am a product of the public school, and I have worked in it all my life. It is a part of me, and I am a part of it. To expect from me judgments about it which are not colored by that association would be as foolish as to expect from a child an unemotional analysis of his parents, their faults and their virtues, their contribution to his character, and his debt to them.

Let me further limit the topic by saying that I am leaving entirely outside my terms of reference the historical place of the public school and

its development as the only possible means of achieving complete popular literacy and a broader dissemination of the learning once reserved for the few. My title refers to the school as it is today in today's society. By public school I mean a state-operated and state-supported institution to which every child has free access. This institution, with all its faults and shortcomings, with all the inequalities of opportunity which its present constitution makes inevitable, this institution is, I believe, one of the most important in our society, with a profound effect on every aspect of our life, and profoundly affected by every aspect of our life.

Now that I have limited the topic by what I do not propose to do, let me outline briefly the plan I have tried to follow in dealing with it. This will, I hope, emerge under seven headings: 1. the ambivalent nature of the public school, 2. the dual philosophy of the public school, 3. our society as the framework within which the school operates, 4. implications for the school of the contradictions in our society, 5. the power of the school, 6. limitations on what the school should undertake, and 7. responsibility for good teachers.

I. As I began to consider the place of the public school in our society I found myself constantly confronted with sets of contradictory elements. These were first apparent in *the ambivalent nature of the public school* and its commonly recognized functions. It is almost axiomatic today to say that the school was set up to serve society. But if it is to serve society it must be able not only to recognize the needs of the present but to predict the needs of the future. Children being educated in the school today must solve their own immediate problems today, but they must also be equipped to solve the greater problems which face them in all their tomorrows. If that is the case the school must be able to predict; it must be able to look ahead; it must have some sort of prevision of the society into which the children will have to integrate themselves. The school, then, must be progressive—not in the limited educational sense of the word—but in the sense of being out in the forefront, of giving leadership in all areas of thought.

In theory that is splendid. But in practice it rarely happens. Why? Because, while the school was set up to serve society, it is also a product of the society in which it exists and a reflection of it. The principal service it offers society is its preservation. That is, every existing society, and ours as strongly as any, insists that its schools maintain the status quo. Society resists change; indeed, it even resists criticism, and it exercises every pressure possible upon the school to see that there is no change. Accordingly our Manitoba program of studies, quite rightly, asserts that "in a twentieth century democracy, right acting depends upon deliberate education in the ways of democracy." Reavis et al, in "Administering the Elementary School," says: "The function of the elementary school is to develop in every child a love and appreciation for the heritage of the rights and privileges guaranteed to our form of government . . ." I have taken my two examples from the field of government because this is the most direct and apparent manifestation of the need for society to use its schools to maintain the status quo. More subtly society works through the schools to uphold all the other principles and practices on which it is based—it seeks to hold the line in speech, manners, morals, human



relations, and all the infinitesimal patterns of habit which make up the texture of a society. This deliberate effort to maintain things as they are—or more accurately, as they were—is a direct and blatant contradiction of the theory that the school must look ahead. It is quite clear that the school cannot move ahead to meet the needs of the future and at the same time devote all its energies to the maintenance of things as they are.

The conservatism of society has two reinforcing elements which are directly related to the school itself. One is the great gap between the teachers and the taught. Each generation must be taught by its predecessor; that predecessor is often thoroughly impregnated with the ideas and ideals of its own times, and there is often an actual time lag of at least two generations between the teacher and the end product of his teaching. Thus the school itself is braking itself, is holding itself back because of limitations within its very nature. The second element contributing to conservatism in the school is the emotional attachment of the adult community to its own youthful experiences. "That program was good enough for me. It's good enough for my children. After all, I turned out to be a pretty upstanding citizen." Or, "I wasn't like that when I was a boy. It's because we weren't getting any of those newfangled ideas at school."

This, then, is the first duality in the school; the forward movement necessary if the school is to meet the needs of the future, and the innate conservatism of the society which the school reflects.

II. But there is a similar ambivalence or duality implicit in the philosophy of the public school. It is a contradiction which every curriculum maker must reflect upon and if possible reconcile, and which every administrator recognizes and meets according to his own conviction. The Winnipeg public schools apparently do not think that the duality is final and have integrated the two aspects of public school philosophy in one sentence: "The central purpose of the Winnipeg Public Schools shall be the preservation and extension of the democratic way of life, and the development of each individual to his highest potentiality." Nevertheless the dichotomy exists. Is it the function of the school primarily to fit the child for citizenship? Or is it more important to develop the individual capacities of the child? Whatever lip service may be given to the need for fullest individual development, our society along with all others gives priority to training in citizenship—preferably to education for conformity to the established society. I am not suggesting that this is necessarily either good or bad, merely that it is so. And there are times, there have been times, when it was bad, at any rate bad in terms of standards acceptable to our society; certainly bad in terms of persecution of the individual because of his difference from the citizen norm, or the social norm.

Fortunately for the large masses of individuals who pass through the educational system the duality can be resolved for most people, since the contradictions in the two aims of the school are not always irreconcilable. All society is founded upon the limitation of freedoms, and there can be growth in society only when these limitations are accepted. It is a mistake to assume that the limitations have multiplied with more advanced technological development, and that a complex political or economic structure is necessarily a restraint upon freedom of the individual. Primitive

men have been as tightly restricted by the taboos of their self-contained cultures as the most automatized of men, and individuals have moved and thought freely within a highly organized and "civilized" state. What is important is the right within the bounds of citizenship to question and to doubt, and to express the doubt and the question. This right means political freedom—that is, the right to question not merely the actions of a particular government, but the form of government itself. It must include the right to question every function of the society, to deviate from its traditional modes of expression in art, literature, and music; and to examine the very pillars upon which society rests. No individual can develop his fullest powers unless he has that freedom. How far he exercises that freedom depends upon his personal capacity, and upon the skill with which he has been led to think about himself and his surroundings. It is not, of course, possible for the public school by itself to create a society in which this reconciliation of freedom and restraint of freedom are ideally resolved; but in working towards a resolution of the duality of its philosophy it can make a notable contribution.

III. I have said that the school is a product and a reflection of the society in which it exists. Let us look briefly at this society, because *the uncertainties of educational philosophy derive directly from the uncertainties and contradictions of society*. To begin with we are living theoretically in a political democracy, the structure of which we have been taught to respect, and the practice of which is one of our most precious privileges. Yet I know I do not have to remind you that a very small proportion of our citizens accept either the privileges or the responsibilities of political democracy. A small percentage of those eligible vote in any election; and there is a painful and dangerous indifference to the acts of government unless they impinge directly upon the personal welfare of an individual. As a result of the general apathy towards democracy we have had several incidents of almost unopposed autocratic government. It is difficult to find interested citizens to function at the local levels of government, and even grass roots organizations, such as parent-teacher associations, find themselves canvassing desperately for leaders. We have, in effect, a political democracy in theory, to the principles of which we offer the highest praise, to the practice of which we are unwilling to commit ourselves. Here is the first contradiction.

In the matter of individual liberty, too, we tend to think of ourselves as generous and tolerant. Yet most of us are unwilling to respect the non-conformist, and greet with derision any variation from what we consider the right, the proper, and the socially acceptable. Stemming directly from this inability to accept differences is our inability to extend—in spite of our alleged tolerance—freedom of thought and religion to all groups within our society. The Padlock Law which won such notoriety for Quebec is an overt manifestation of the covert intolerance which most of us manifest to one group or another. It is an intolerance which extends into censorship of books and films, a limitation upon use of the public platform and the public air, and the careful selection of the type of propaganda which is allowed to reach the man on the street.

Third, I have already discussed and now must mention again the conflict within our society of the two forces of progressivism and con-

servatism. We pride ourselves on being forward looking and forward thinking, but we are easily recognizable as one of the most conservative of nations.

There exists, also, a conflict among us between the ideal of economic and social security, and the principles of free enterprise, a conflict which finds interesting expression in the assumption that political democracy and free enterprise are synonymous. Here again our society has reached no definite conclusions, and so dissipates among us, its members, an uncertainty of thought and allegiance.

More fundamental, perhaps, is the conflict between the ideal of goodwill and the equality of man on the one hand and the general if somewhat shamefaced practice of racial and religious discrimination on the other; and there is the terrifying conflict between the expressed desire for peace, and the constant urge to force. These two fundamental contradictions between ideal and action threaten the whole structure of modern civilization. Unless they are resolved this whole discussion on the public school and society is purely academic, bearing no relationship to reality.

IV. I have deliberately emphasized the conflicts and the contradictions, perhaps even exaggerated them because I want you to think of them as the framework within which the public school must operate. *These seven checks and balances have a profound influence on the public school as it is today.*

1. We insist that a primary function of the school is "the preservation and extension of the democratic way of life." But the school is essentially autocratic in nature. The whole chain of command is the line-and-staff chain of the military machine, with authority emanating from above. The school does indeed serve society, and it is in a subservient position. Regulations for its conduct are laid down in the most minute detail, from the manner in which the attendance must be recorded to the day on which a certain page in the English text should be taught. Curricula are determined, textbooks accredited, teachers recruited and certificated, all at the fountainhead of authority, and the necessary edicts to enforce these decisions are then distributed through the lower ranks. It is probably inevitable that authoritarian procedures such as this should be imitated in local school systems, in individual schools, and in the classrooms. It is unlikely that a democratic spirit will spring to life and flourish within a framework which is firmly autocratic. Nor is the democratic spirit likely to be encouraged when it makes a hardy and recurrent appearance.

However, there is hope. As long as democracy is the ideal of our society there will be those who strive to make the ideal a reality. So within the authoritarian structure of the educational system there is a constant struggle for the realization of the democratic ideal; and the struggle is often successful. Our schools have fought so far along the road to democracy that at the elementary level anyway all children are recognized as having an equal right of entrance, and an equal right to education adapted to their needs. This is educational democracy. There is a growing demand as well that the authority for curriculum making, for choice of textbooks, for the adaptation of courses to local needs be



allowed to filter down to the levels which are democratically equipped to make reasonable judgments. Indeed, in spite of the apparent pessimism of what has gone before, I believe that the public school stands beside the Courts of Law and the polling booth as potentially the most democratic of institutions in our society.

2. Now to the conflict between non-conformism and the intolerance of the general group. Because our society tends to ridicule the non-conformist, the school also finds him hard to accept, and in many classrooms the child who cannot meet the demands of the group suffers sadly. The resultant loss to society is inestimable; for many of the world's great men have been unable to conform to the general pattern, and among the scorned there may be splendid material, unfortunately not strong enough to withstand the opprobrium of the many. The non-conformist has a hard choice; too often he must either knuckle down and make himself over, or he must fight for his individuality to the point where he is forever embittered. Either way, the loss is ours.

But again there is hope, and again that hope is at present brighter and steadier at the elementary school level. For a generation now schoolmen have been concerned with individual differences and the means for providing for these differences. They have provided enriched programs for intelligent students, specially arranged slower programs for slow learners and the mentally retarded, tried acceleration, and major work classes, set up child guidance centres for consideration of special problems, and have truly tried to give more than token allegiance to the principle of the best for each individual, and each individual according to his needs.

There has developed, too, through the years, extensive opportunity for children to express themselves through the arts. These, the much criticized frills of the school program, have given scope to youngsters who found themselves frustrated and unhappy within the lockstep of subject, examination, grade. The change in the teaching of art offers a good example. Gone are the stilted, much erased drawings of hemisphere and cone, cup and saucer, book and book; gone are the ghastly water colors of cosmos and marigolds. In their place is a riot of color and form which gives every child the glad chance to be different in his own way, to dig deep in himself for the expression of his feelings and his ideas.

3. Some of you may not agree with what I am about to say about freedom of thought and expression in the schools. Paul Blanshard in his book, "The Right to Read" has a chapter on censorship of textbooks and the schools in the United States. He has this to say: "If the typical American parent were asked what should be the chief test for a good textbook, he would probably say Truth. Every parent wants his children to learn the truth about life. But since there are almost as many definitions of truth as there are parents in the world, the standard of truth applied in any local situation is likely to be the standard of the most vocal parents and the most positive teachers. Traditionally the parents want their children to learn in school those things which they themselves believe to be true, and if there are any ideas of history, morals, science and patriotism in the textbooks contrary to their own notions of history, morals, science or patriotism, the parents can be transformed from docile taxpayers into

voluble critics of the school system." It was Mark Twain who said: "The very ink with which all history is written is merely fluid prejudice."

Fortunately in our part of the world there has been no great furore about textbooks. For this there are several reasons. One is that the books have been very carefully examined for suitability first by their publishers, then by selection committees—all very conscious of public prejudices—long before they reach the classroom. Another reason is the fact that a great many of our textbooks are American publications which have been either revised or re-written to insure the correct modicum of Canadianism. A third reason lies in the very Americanism of the textbooks. Canadian teachers are in the position of being forced to use the texts with discretion and critical perception because their own prejudices so direct them.

Nonetheless freedom of thought and expression is limited in the school, inevitably limited by the restraints imposed by society upon the teacher. Even in a relatively free atmosphere there are topics which would not generally be discussed by a teacher who is anxious to retain his status either in the community or in the school. Self-censorship, which is really society-censorship, frequently restricts discussion on matters of religion and politics, for example.

Freedom of expression and certainly freedom of discussion is further and seriously hampered in the classroom by another equally effective restraint, the restraint of set examinations at the secondary level. Teachers find themselves holding back their young people and holding themselves back because they cannot afford the time to wander into the tempting paths of exploration and conjecture. The warning, "We can't talk about that" is not the result of censorship of thought and expression, but the frustrating outcome of the regurgitation type of secondary school examination.

4. The struggle between conservatism and progressivism is clearly revealed in every aspect of the school situation. Curriculum making is profoundly influenced by it, because it is here that the public can make itself most loudly and forcefully heard, and the course of studies is most directly influenced by public opinion. I should like to illustrate what I mean by direct reference to what has happened in the past few years in our own schools in Manitoba. The curriculum revision of 1946 at the elementary school level showed the effect of educational research findings in the areas of arithmetic, language, and social studies up to that point. Manitoba has been a little slow in making use of the available material, and had shown a not unnatural inclination to wait until others had done the experimentation. However, in the clamor that followed—I may say, an often unreasoning and unreasonable clamor—she was much more quick to retrace her steps, and the latest revision of curriculum has been marked by a distinct reaction from the principles established earlier. I refer you to the program of studies in English and in Arithmetic particularly. Here is an example of what the pressures of society can do to the school. The pendulum-like swing from right to left and from left to right is a reflection of the same movements in the society which the school serves.

The innate conservatism of our society and the conflict between it and the forward-looking among the school people are also apparent in school administration, especially in the secondary schools. Many of our secondary schools have changed very little in the past generation. Their inflexibility has made it impossible for them to cope with the new problems which they are being called upon to solve—the changing needs of a more complex social, economic, and industrial structure, the changing attitudes of society towards authority, discipline, human relationships, the overpowering increase of high school population, and the assumption that every child has a right to a secondary school education. The conservatives have fought hard against the provision of elective courses, against terminal courses in the high school, against two-, three-, or four-track programs to provide for varying needs and abilities.

To resent this conservatism in our society is natural for those in education who are impatient. They can see the flaws in the present system; they want only the opportunity to try something else, to experiment, in the hope that experimentation in the long run is less wasteful of money, time, and human resources than is stagnation. But long experience in the schools has almost taught them—fortunately, not quite!—that progress is slow, that the system of checks and balances must be manipulated with care lest it all come crashing down. Since the school is an instrument of society, society must feel the need for change before change in the school can take place. On the other hand, they see that society has already changed, and that only the lag between the school and life is applying the hindering brake. Right now they feel that the brake must be released, and the vehicle be allowed to move forward, if either the school or our democratic society is to survive the rapid changes of our age.

5. If the political and social theories of the age have implications for the school, so have the economic. Indeed, it may not be going too far to say that the public school is a development of the new economics. Release from labor made it possible for children of all classes to attend school; the new leisure and the new standard of living made a minimum of schooling an essential. Schooling followed the machine in industry, and political democracy followed the schooling. So much are they now part of one another that their development is a continuous circle circumscribing an equilateral triangle; no one can say where the circle started, and to the circle there is no end.

At the moment I am more directly concerned with the effect on the school of the conflicting theories of social security and co-operation as opposed to free enterprise. It is interesting to see the dichotomy within the school itself, a direct result of the dichotomy of thought within society. The public school is of course a primary example of the welfare state in action. Here the community or the state has assumed responsibility for a particular function which was once the prerogative of private enterprise. It is, I think, a fair commentary on the fears which surround the words welfare state or public control or socialism to note that the public schools have in the sounder democracies remained free and unhampered by governmental interference—within the limitations I have already referred to.



However, within the school and its administration there is a constant warring between the principles of competition on the one hand and co-operation on the other. Schoolmen have asked the question without answer: How far should competitive techniques be carried within the classroom, within the school, within the school system? Should emphasis be laid on individual techniques or on group techniques? Much criticism has been leveled at the school in the last few years and not a little ridicule because of misunderstanding of group techniques in teaching. Fear that the individual might be lost in the group and in conformity to the group has overshadowed realization of the child's need to shine in the group, and the opportunity for leadership within it.

Again these conflicting principles often carry over into the organization of schools and school systems where the balance between healthy competition and successful co-operation must be carefully preserved. Happy board-teacher relationships, principal-staff relationships, pupil-teacher relationships depend upon just such a balance.

The school has also been caught unaware in the tensions created by the world struggle between communism and capitalism. Canada seems to have escaped the worst of the hysteria which swept the United States. For this we should probably thank the innate conservatism of our society which, while it is slow to accept anything new and progressive, is equally reluctant to take up arms against an unproved enemy. And yet the fears engendered by that very hysteria could not but have an ill effect on freedom of speech and learning. This I have already mentioned in the section on freedom of expression.

This is no place for a dissertation on the financing of education. But mention should be made of three things. (1) Public financing of the schools made possible widespread education; (2) public financing of education made possible non-sectarian schools; and (3) present methods of financing have long outgrown the development of the school. If the school is to maintain its position, and certainly if it is to expand its effort, the economics of the public school system must be completely re-evaluated.

6. In speaking of the contradictions within our society I referred briefly to the conflict between the ideal of good will and the equality of men, and the general if shamefaced practice of racial and religious discrimination. In discussing the contradictions implicit in our society I referred to it briefly not because I thought it unimportant, but because I knew that I should be dealing with it again at greater length. It is here, I think, that the school can play a major part. We have all wondered how successful we have been in erasing in our children the prejudices, racial and religious, which have been fostered in them at home and in the community; and there are times when we feel that we have failed signally. We cringe at the thought of the gratuitous insult offered to our Japanese population during World War II, of the straits in which our Indians and Metis find themselves, of our attitude to the Hutterites, and of the conditions in our communities which make Fair Employment Practices legislation necessary. We have not always been as aware of the unconsciously expressed prejudices of teachers and children, prejudices of Catholics against Protestants, and Protestants against Catholics, of Jew against gentile

and gentile against Jew, of native against immigrant, and of Anglo-Saxon against "foreigner."

Here the school can do a job. For to the public school all sorts of children come, and are accepted on their merits as individuals, not as members of an ethnic or religious group. As children they accept one another willingly, without question. Only when their adult guides give them unconscious direction are they roused to knowledge of differences. It becomes the duty of the school, then, to place the differences in their relative positions of importance, to bring understanding and acceptance both to the majority and the minority representatives within its walls. In order to do this it is not enough to incorporate into the curriculum studies of various cultures, or to talk about our brothers-under-the-skin. Administrators and teachers must root out in themselves the prejudices and the pre-conceived convictions from which prejudices spring. They must learn to understand and to accept. They must learn the humility which comes with understanding, a humility which knows that their own is not the only way of life, and even occasionally not the best way of life.

In Manitoba I think that by and large we may offer ourselves moderate congratulation. With our mixture of ethnic groups, and our varied religious beliefs we have come to a partial compromise between the conflicting elements of tolerance and intolerance, goodwill and discrimination. But I feel the school must be constantly on guard lest the latter win out over the former, particularly in areas where one ethnic or religious group tends to dominate numerically. The majority always tends to be ruthless, particularly over a minority large enough to threaten its security. Teachers, particularly, must be careful not to be swept away by the currents of popular prejudice; you notice I have been careful not to say popular thought or even popular opinion.

Finally I should like to consider the terrifying conflict between society's expressed desire for peace and its constant urge to use force, and the implications of this conflict for the school. First and most obvious, of course, is the effect of it upon textbooks and courses of study. In times of peace, when the world is striving to work out some pattern of co-operation, peaceful objectives are stressed in courses of study, and men of peace are the heroes of the textbooks. In the great resurgence of hope when the League of Nations was formed, textbooks abounded with stories of Alexander Graham Bell and Thomas Edison; their predecessors had carried blood and thunder verse and tales of warlike prowess. I remember reading with tears in my eyes of the young Zulu killed in battle; I choked up at Macaulay's:

"How can man die better than facing fearful odds,  
For the ashes of his fathers,  
And the temples of his gods,"

and still find myself moved by:

"The sand of the desert is sodden red,  
Red with the wreck of a square that broke."

Now Canadian schools are stressing again the ways of peace, and are looking hopefully to a future when men will have ceased killing in the

name of glory or national glorification. Meanwhile, the children, like the generation which preceded them, are in a state of confusion; their school, like their society, preaches one set of values, and turns them out into the world to see another set operating successfully and winning general acclaim.

The problem is a moral and an ethical one; it is also a problem which social psychiatrists are being called upon to solve. Where lies the responsibility of the school? How far does it dare go against the prevailing modes of society in teaching the virtues of peace, of the sacredness of human life, of the settlement of differences through discussion? And if it fails to go far enough how much longer will the world have in which to exercise its amoral will to self-destruction? And in the interests of the individual is it fair for the school to teach a set of values which life proves to be ineffectual?

Even in the disturbed state of today's world I am optimistic enough to believe that the school is important to the resolution of the contradiction, and that the school can be a heavily contributing factor towards the achievement of world peace. But the school cannot do its job merely by teaching the beauties and virtues of peace while tolerating and even encouraging the practice of force. Nor will the apotheosis of men of peace in literature and social studies textbooks serve the purpose. The school must work out a definite and careful program during the course of which it examines its own practices and evaluates them in terms of the result to be desired. First, the school must teach the principles of peace not divorced from the world as it is, but with a clear understanding of all the dangers which threaten those principles. Teachers and texts must be free to appraise and to criticize the actions of friends as well as enemies, to analyze not only the immediate but the ultimate causes of war. They must not allow current disturbances of emotion to erase critical thinking regarding the use of force as an instrument of diplomacy. They must present clearly, truthfully, and without hysteria the consequences of war, any war. Once more you will notice that I have stressed the need for freedom of expression on the part of the teacher and the text.

Even this is not enough. Teaching by precept is never enough. And now I have a question which I must pose to all of us. If we really believe that force should not be used in the settlement of world affairs, how far is the school justified in using force to attain its own ends? I am leaving this as a question, because I do not pretend to know the answer. Is the school right in encouraging games where the winning is important and the winning is achieved largely through the exercise of force? Is the school right to use corporal punishment for the resolution of discipline problems? Is the school wise enough and strong enough in itself to recognize its own failure when it has had to resort to force? Has the school made provision in its organization for the machinery of discussion and guidance so that pupil tensions do not have to be released through the use of force? In short, is the internal organization of the school such that force is not an instrument of policy?

At the beginning of my talk I pointed out how difficult it is for the school to give leadership, to foresee the needs of the future and to plan and provide for them. And yet if the school does not take the initiative

and prepare its young minds to accept a future of peace instead of a future of war, there will be no future for them at all. It may be true that there can be no permanent peace if only half the world wants it, but it is much safer to know that at least half the world honestly wants it and honestly will strive for it, than to know that the whole world looks to force for a settlement of disagreements. If our society is not yet ready to accept the truth of this dictum, then there is positive need for the school to create the readiness in the generation it is now teaching.

V. I hope that at no time this afternoon have I given the impression that I underestimate *the power of the public school*. Every modern nation realizes what the school means to it, and recognizes the tremendous power which it exercises. For the school takes the child at the age of five or six and attempts to mold him to the pattern of the prevailing society. In a country like ours where many of the parents and grandparents were immigrants and had to adapt themselves to a completely different way of life, the school often served to replace rather than to supplement many of the influences of the home, a fact which has made it even more powerful than it is in more staidly settled and more homogeneous cultures. It has thus become one of the most important of the integrating forces in Canadian life; it is supplying a tradition which no other single institution in our national life can supply.

Exactly how powerful the public school is and with what awe its power is regarded has been sadly illustrated in the past few months in the United States. The opponents of integration of Negroes into the schools of the South attach so much importance to the influence of their schools that several states are willing to destroy the public school system rather than to expose their children to its integrating influence. Herbert Ravenel Sass, Southern author, writing in November's Atlantic Monthly expresses the thought strongly if crudely: "A very few years of thoroughly integrated schools would produce large numbers of indoctrinated young Southerners free from all 'prejudice' against mixed matings." Of course, Mr. Sass overestimates the power of the school to work in isolation from society; but his comment is none the less revealing of the general opinion of the power of the public school.

Totalitarian states and conquering nations have also used the captive populations of the public school to sell their propaganda. We all remember the touching little story of the Last Lesson in French; the Germans when they took Alsace and Lorraine turned their first attention to the schools. Similarly the indoctrination of single viewpoints like fascism, national socialism and communism has had to be done through the schools where defenceless children presumably constitute easily available vessels into which propaganda can be poured. Even in our country, our province, our city special pressure groups are constantly seeking entry to the schools with special ideas to be foisted upon teachers and children. Most of these are thoroughly well-meaning and dedicated people, whose motives are of the best and principles of the highest. They advocate everything from the support of private charity, through the lauding of the banking system, to the addition of religious education to the public school program. They all have one aim in common—to reach the children where they all are and where they are all receptive.



I am happy to say that all these worthy people, including the indoctrinators of the -isms, are overly optimistic about the power of the school. It is powerful enough, but not powerful enough to override by itself the mores of its society. So the Germans failed to impose their culture on Alsace and Lorraine, and the Communists in ten years of unremitting effort apparently failed to change the basic structure of Hungarian thought.

VI. This brings me to a very important point in any discussion of the place of the school in our society. School people and the general public alike sometimes forget that *the school is not the only educational influence in any society*. In a society which is hostile to its general ideas, as in the examples I have just given, the School is not even the most important educational influence. Nor should it in its conceit, and its urgency to do a good job, undertake to carry the load of the other educative institutions—the home, the church, the organizations of labor and industry, the theatre, the great systems of modern communication such as the press, radio, and television. If it is to perform its dual function of working towards good citizenship on the one hand and development of the fullest potential of the individual on the other, it must realize its limitations. It must close its doors against the temptation to relieve other institutions of their responsibility, although it must work steadily with them towards the achievement of their common aims.

VII. Throughout I have stressed the need for freedom in the school if the school is to serve society well. Now I want to say that freedom is not enough in itself, because *freedom can be exercised only by responsible men and women*. Freedom of expression is of little value unless there is something to be expressed; freedom of choice in courses and textbooks, freedom to organize a school democratically both lead only to chaos unless they are in the hands of men and women capable of making choices and capable of democratic organization. The desire to draw from a child the utmost which he is capable of giving is not enough unless the teacher attempting it has the understanding and the intelligence and the training to implement the desire. Not the finest words written into programs of study, not the loftiest phrases of the best speechmakers can compensate for ill-equipped, academically and professionally untrained teachers. It is not possible for a teacher unaware of his own prejudices to bring understanding to his pupils. It is not possible for the subdued conformist to recognize and draw out the non-conformist among his students. It is not possible for the moral coward to teach courage, or for the unethical to teach ethics. Moreover, if the ambivalent nature of the public school to which I referred at the beginning is ever to be reconciled with itself and with the future needs of society, the public school must have at its controls men of vision and daring. I said that the school must have some sort of prevision of the society into which the children will have to integrate themselves; it must be out in the forefront, must give leadership in all areas of thought. For this it must have men and women who can and are willing to think boldly and clearly, men and women who are ready to serve their society but who refuse to be slaves of it, men and women who are not afraid of criticism when they believe they are right, not afraid to doubt or to question, not afraid to admit gaps in their knowledge or errors in their judgment, not

afraid of experiment and failure. Only with such men and women to guide it can the school plot its course between the hot wind of rash theory and the icy front of conservatism. In short the ultimate success or failure of the public school to meet the needs of its society depends upon the quality of its teachers. Anything which tends to raise the quality improves the public school and so the society it serves; anything which tends to lower the quality—however it may be condoned on the grounds of expediency or immediate returns—damages the school and so the society it serves.

I warned you at the beginning that I was going to speak from the heart rather than from the intellect. I warned you, too, that I should have to omit large segments of argument, segments about which I feel at least as strongly as about the small segments I have presented for your consideration today. I am concerned that I have been able to bring you nothing new or startling. I can say only that I derived pleasure and profit from the organization of my own thoughts and feelings about a subject which stirs me deeply.

# In-Service Education Programs for Manitoba Teachers

W. W. McCutcheon, Director, Faculty of Education, Brandon College

The purpose of this study was to secure information about the nature and extent of the in-service education available to teachers in Manitoba during the school year 1955-56. In addition the study also presents different points of view held on the subject with special attention being given to those of the Manitoba school inspectors. The importance of in-service education for teachers is recognized, and it therefore follows that a study of this nature will be of value not only to those who arrange in-service programs, but also to those who benefit from them, and to those who would like to benefit from them but who at the present time lack the facilities to do so.

Definitions of what in-service training includes have been given by various writers. The definition that was used for purposes of this study was "a planned and varied program of help to teachers and all certificated personnel for the purpose of improving instruction and promoting professional growth." In brief, in-service training is a variety of activities that assist teachers to keep modifying and improving their special skills. There is a rather forceful maxim which says: "Who dares to teach must never cease to learn."

It has long been recognized that the training of a teacher is incomplete following the conclusion of a teacher-training course. Such a course is not meant to provide a teacher with the professional training required for all time. The idea that professional training should be an on-going process is not confined solely to teaching. Members of most other professions are aware of the value of continued professional improvement. For instance, in the medical profession it is obviously desirable that doctors keep abreast of advances affecting their practice. Although the circumstances surrounding the importance of keeping up to date in teaching are perhaps less obvious than in medicine they are nonetheless of importance. Teaching methods and techniques do not remain static and the teacher who, after several years, is teaching in the same manner she was taught to teach is probably in the same category as the doctor who fails to keep informed about the advances made by medical research.

Many Departments of Education recognize the fact that professional growth is a continuous process and require that teachers complete a prescribed amount of work in summer schools or sessions. This is especially so with teachers whose experience is limited, but it is not uncommon to find that teachers regardless of prior training and experience are advised or required to attend a summer course once every five years or so. In other words, in-service growth of a teacher is thought of as the education which takes place after teaching has commenced and follows pre-service training.

Although in-service training can and often does take place at a time of year when the teacher is not teaching it seems that an important and valuable part of training may be that which can or should take place during the school year. It is with this type of training that the study

reported here is primarily concerned. There will undoubtedly be problems confronted during the school year that can serve as very valuable areas for study. Formal courses may not always make a significant contribution to the teaching situation at hand. The more informal approach that comes as a result of group study, workshops, staff meetings and the like should not be disregarded.

### *Methods Used in the Study*

The material which formed the basis for this study was obtained by mailing questionnaires to school inspectors throughout Manitoba early in April, 1956. Of the 37 questionnaires mailed 28 replies were received which were considered to make a contribution to the study. A few inspectors replied by writing a letter pointing out that because of the lack of an in-service training program they would not be completing a questionnaire. It is recognized that the technique used to collect the information for the study had a number of limitations, but circumstances made a questionnaire about the only feasible way of conducting the study.

## **ANALYSIS OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OPPORTUNITIES FOR TEACHERS IN MANITOBA**

### *Financial Support for Programs*

Industry and governments not uncommonly give active financial support to on-the-job training for employees. Often such training may be for the initial preparation of employees, but it is also recognized that employee training is desirable at various points during an employee's career. Manitoba school inspectors reported that it was not common for school boards to allocate funds for the in-service education of the teachers they employ. The proportion of inspectors indicating any financial support for such a program in their inspectorates was about one to eleven compared with those signifying that financial support by school boards was lacking. The general comment by one school inspector seems appropriate at this point:

Although school boards, as a group, have not shown too much interest, financially or otherwise, I feel that if the individual inspector or superintendent would make the need for, and benefits to be derived from, known, that greater support would be forthcoming. Inspectors will probably be in a better position to "push" and give time to developing "in-service" programs when districts are cut down in size (which has been done in a measure during the past three years—except in large urban centres). To date except in larger centres it has been almost an impossibility to do anything beyond regular fall convention sessions.

### *Planning of Programs*

The overall development of in-service education should characteristically begin with the teacher. Other persons ordinarily included are principals, superintendents, inspectors, teacher-training personnel as well



as others. A common feeling concerning the promotion of in-service training is that teachers should not be compelled to participate in an in-service education program.

Teachers who are conscientious can be expected to wish to have opportunities for additional training because of their desire to improve their teaching. Persons who are truly interested in their profession welcome means for advancing their skills.

On the basis of information resulting from the study, the evidence appears to be that the inspectors consider themselves at present to be the people most directly responsible for the overall development of the in-service education programs. School principals are credited with being the second most important persons and, in terms of the frequency of mention, school superintendents were the third most important. One inspector made the comment that many individual teachers who are dedicated to their work follow university lectures and take correspondence courses.

### *Teachers Served*

The inspectors were asked "For whom is the program planned?" The question was intended to determine the emphasis of the program and whether it was planned for new teachers, uncertificated teachers and so on. It appears that the in-service education programs being conducted in Manitoba are designed to assist all teachers in general. Seven inspectors reported specific efforts being made for the benefit of new teachers and a like number signified that special efforts were made for the benefit of uncertificated teachers.

In reporting the differences that exist for various types of teachers it was mentioned that for purposes of in-service education teachers were usually grouped according to grade level, for example, elementary, junior high, and senior high school teacher. One inspector reported:

Rural teachers meet once a month for study, discussion of problems—meeting with inspector. All city teachers meet once a month to discuss problems peculiar to their situation.

### *In-service Education Required*

The inspectors were asked to indicate the extent to which in-service education was required during each school year. The information supplied was to the effect that a specific requirement is not made. Attendance at a two-day fall convention appears to be a sort of universal requirement or at least an expectation. Teachers who do not attend the convention for their area are required to teach, so the option is one of attending the local convention or teaching since the conventions are held during teaching days.

The extent to which salary increases are offered as an incentive to teachers to improve their abilities as teachers through in-service education programs during the school year are quite restricted, judging from the information supplied by the inspectors. The comment of one inspector was: "Rural boards pay little attention to such advancement." Although teachers may reasonably be expected to want to improve themselves as a

matter of pride and desire to be better teachers, lack of financial incentives can be expected to limit the attractions of making an effort to become a more proficient teacher.

### *Nature of In-service Programs*

In the questionnaire an attempt was made to ascertain the type of study that most generally tended to be emphasized in the in-service training programs as they existed at the time of the survey. The questionnaire listed broad classifications or areas of study considered to provide for teacher improvement. Table I lists the answers resulting from the questionnaire, and the topics or areas of study have been arranged in the order that they were most frequently checked. Items checked on fewer than five questionnaires have not been included in Table I.

**TABLE I**  
**AREAS OF STUDY OR GENERAL PROBLEMS MOST OFTEN STUDIED**  
**IN IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS**

Area or Problem of Study	Number of Times Checked
Improvement of instruction .....	19
Parent-teacher relationships .....	14
Testing programs .....	14
Individual differences .....	10
Staff coordination .....	10
Teacher competence .....	10
Professional standards and ethics .....	9
Audio-visual education .....	7
Child growth and development .....	7
Teacher orientation .....	7
Child psychology .....	6
Community service .....	6
Public relations .....	6
Certification requirements .....	5
Curriculum development .....	5
Group dynamics .....	5
Health problems .....	5

An examination of Table I shows that the improvement of instruction and teaching techniques is of primary concern in programs of in-service education. In other words a desire to increase the competence of the teacher in the classroom and the recognition of the need for help in this area is shown by the popularity of this subject. Parent-teacher relationships, the second most frequently checked subject, consisted to a large extent of the activities of Home and School Associations. Testing programs, also the second most frequently checked subject, is at the present time of much interest to teachers.

Subjects not listed in Table I due to the infrequency of their usage in programs of teacher in-service training are the following: intergroup culture, democratic group practices, school finance, international relations

and family life education. These subjects have been mentioned since their value cannot be overlooked although they are not presently being studied to any great extent. Sociologists, in particular, are stressing the need for courses in family life education in the schools.

### *Procedures Employed*

A checklist of techniques or practices that might be expected to be used in a program of in-service education was included on the questionnaire. Items, or methods used at all, were to be checked; those used most frequently were to be double checked; and those considered to be most effective in improving instruction and promoting professional growth were to be underlined. Table II presents the results of the opinions expressed by the inspectors.

**TABLE II**  
**FREQUENCY OF USE AND EFFECTIVENESS OF TECHNIQUES USED**  
**IN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS**

Technique	Frequency With Which		
	Used	Used Most Often	Rated To Be Most Effective in Improving Instruction and Promoting Professional Growth
Inspectors' conferences .....	12	11	3
School faculty meetings .....	9	5	1
Teacher-principal conferences .....	14	5	1
Pre-school conferences .....	6	1	—
Extension classes of the University .....	8	3	1
Correspondence courses .....	11	2	—
Workshop held during the school year ....	9	1	1
Curriculum development committees .....	1	—	—
School-faculty study groups .....	2	—	—
Use of consultants .....	4	—	—
Visitation to other schools .....	6	—	—
Demonstration classes .....	8	—	2
Teacher exchanges .....	2	—	—
Excursions or field trips .....	4	—	—
Research and writing .....	2	—	1
Travel .....	6	1	—
Lectures on educational subjects .....	8	—	—
Professional libraries .....	10	—	—

From Table II some general indications may be obtained of how Manitoba school inspectors feel about the various techniques that are used as part of the in-service education being conducted. In addition the opinions of the inspectors concerning the effectiveness of the techniques used is shown. Inspectors were asked to make comments on this aspect if they wished to do so. One inspector mentioned the contribution made by the Manitoba Teachers' Society. Another felt that the individual con-

ferences between teachers and the inspectors on the occasion of each visit to a school were valuable. Reference was also made to the benefits to be derived from educational films and grade-level conferences.

### *Evaluation*

To be more certain that the time and energy expended on in-service education is being utilized effectively, assessment of the work being done is desirable. The questionnaire asked for information on how the results of the in-service training were evaluated in the various inspectorates. Seventeen replies stipulated that no organized plan of evaluation was used; seven inspectors signified that evaluation was based on discussions on the part of the teachers and school principals; three others reported using a check sheet, and two made reference to using a representative committee.

Another means of evaluating is in terms of the benefits derived. A list of the more significant contributions that might be expected was given and the inspectors were asked to signify which ones in their opinion, were most important. The extent to which the various items were checked was as follows:

**TABLE III**  
**NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF BENEFITS OF IN-SERVICE  
TRAINING AS RATED BY INSPECTORS**

Benefits	No. of Times Receiving Mention
Improvement of procedures, techniques and methods .....	18
Stimulation of professional growth .....	15
Improved teacher and school morale .....	13
Improved teacher-administrator relationships .....	8
Curriculum development and improvement .....	3
Advancement on the salary schedule .....	1

The extent to which the inspectors expressing an opinion felt that in-service training may be expected to improve teaching procedures, skills and methods, the stimulation of professional growth and the improvement of teacher and school morale may be considered as illustrative of the desirable benefits to be derived from having an in-service education program for teachers.

### *Factors Hampering Programs*

Although evidence resulting from this study points to the fact that Manitoba school inspectors are of the opinion that worthwhile benefits are to be derived from in-service training, programs of in-service training are in actuality quite limited. What are some of the prohibiting factors?



**TABLE IV**  
**FACTORS CONSIDERED TO BE HAMPERING DEVELOPMENT OF**  
**IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS IN MANITOBA**

Factor	No. of Times Receiving Mention
Insufficient teacher time to devote to the in-service program	13
Insufficient time for planning and administration of the program	12
Lack of teacher interest and participation	10
Inadequate financial support	8

Comments on this aspect of the questionnaire were made by several of the inspectors, and some of them might profitably be repeated here. One inspector feels that inadequate in-service training results from: "Lack of leadership and failure to recognize its great need." Another comment was:

Lack of means of transportation for teachers in the one-room rural schools. Perhaps in a year or two sufficient interest will have developed to form a few study groups and hold a few workshops. These would be more popular of course if time spent could be counted as teaching days.

One brief comment made was: "Lack of interest by rural boards." Another inspector feels that a great deal of the fault is with the teachers themselves when he said:

Teachers using the profession as a "stepping-stone" and those who teach for only two or three years have *no* interest in an in-service program. Too many teachers are in these categories.

#### *The Provision of In-service Training*

While the responsibility for providing in-service training can rest with a number of educational resources, the inspectors limited their suggestions to six. When listing the agencies which they felt should be making a greater contribution to or provision for in-service teacher-training, inspectors were asked to assign a ranking to the order of importance, from one to six. The results of what the inspectors think is summarized in tabular form as follows:

**TABLE V**  
**EXTENT TO WHICH INSPECTORS FEEL SELECTED AGENCIES**  
**SHOULD BE MAKING A GREATER CONTRIBUTION TO**  
**IN-SERVICE TRAINING**

Sources	Frequency With Which Mentioned						Weighting
	No. 1	No. 2	No. 3	No. 4	No. 5	No. 6	
Teacher organizations	3	8	4	—	1	—	76
Teachers themselves	5	5	4	—	—	1	72
Department of Education	7	1	2	1	1	2	62
School boards	2	—	5	5	—	1	48
Normal schools	—	3	1	2	4	—	33
University	1	1	—	3	1	2	24

From Table V it may be seen how the inspectors feel about those who should be assuming a greater responsibility for in-service training. Weighting of the responses made by the inspectors has been done in an attempt to arrive at an overall evaluation of their replies. The rating was done on the following basis. Items rated by the inspectors as being the ones where greatest additional responsibility should be assumed were assigned a weight of six. Those factors rated as second were given a weight of five and so on with the item being rated as of sixth importance in the assessment of the inspector receiving a weight of one. As a result of this appraisal inspectors rate teacher organizations as being the most in need of making a greater contribution to in-service training. One school inspector said:

The best in-service training would be through the Teachers' Locals, where an interchange of ideas, demonstration lessons, preparation of papers, discussion, etc., tended to improve instruction and promote professional growth.

Inspectors feel, secondly, that teachers themselves, and thirdly, the Department of Education, should be doing more. When referring to the Department of Education two inspectors made specific reference to the inspectional staff. One of the comments was: "Department (of Education) through Inspector—but too occupied with other duties . . ." Inspectors, on the basis of the study, feel that the contribution of the teacher-training institutions is more adequate than the other four sources of training which are included in Table V.

### *Conclusion*

It would seem that Manitoba teachers are somewhat inactive in assuming the necessary leadership in arranging for their in-service education. The limited extent to which salary increases are offered as incentives to teachers who improve themselves through in-service education programs is probably a contributing factor to the lack of enthusiasm on the part of a good many teachers. It is interesting to consider again that the inspectors felt that teachers and teachers' organizations were those who were the most in need of making a greater contribution to in-service training. There are at present obstacles in the way of a comprehensive in-service education program for Manitoba teachers; however, if the interest of the teachers could be raised to a point that they would willingly join such a program were it generally available, then it may be assumed that a way to overcome physical and financial difficulties would be found.

# Graduate Programs in the Faculty of Education

There appears below a quotation from the Calendar entitled "Education II and Education III Courses." Readers will observe that while no new content has been introduced into graduate programs, little has been deleted. The number of graduate courses has been reduced simply by combining and consolidating previous courses. The changes and trends introduced this year are:

1. Reduction in the number of courses in the hope that by increasing Summer School offerings, graduate students may be able to register in courses leading to patterned programs.
2. Patterning of M.Ed. programs. Five groupings of subjects are suggested.
3. Introduction of Arts and Science courses in philosophy and psychology as prerequisites to courses in education. Political science and sociology are prerequisites or co-requisites to courses in educational administration.
4. Emphasis on the inclusion of senior and graduate Arts and Science courses in B.Ed. and M.Ed. programs.

The assigning of "course papers" for which 50 per cent of total credit is allowed, will continue as heretofore only if the instructor in any given course wishes to make such an assignment. Ordinarily all summer session and off-campus lectures in B.Ed. and M.Ed. programs will be two hours in length with a written examination marking the termination of lecture periods.

Paralleling its consolidation and reorganization of B.Ed. and M.Ed. programs, the Faculty of Education will endeavour to increase Summer Session offerings so that planned programs may be completed without heavy loss of time.

## Education II and Education III Courses

### *B.Ed. Programs:*

Students who do not wish to pursue studies beyond the B.Ed. degree may qualify for that degree by obtaining credit in any four B.Ed. or M.Ed. courses, provided only that prerequisite requirements are met.

### *M.Ed. Programs:*

Students wishing to qualify for the M.Ed. degree<sup>1</sup> shall so select courses in combined B.Ed. and M.Ed. programs that they form two

<sup>1</sup> Students are required to register with the School of Graduate Studies and Research before beginning courses which they expect to include in M.Ed. programs. See Graduate Studies section of University Calendar entitled "Registration Procedure."

sequences, a major and a minor. After completing B.Ed. requirements, candidates may meet M.Ed. requirements by following any one of the following three routes:

- (a) Three courses and a thesis.<sup>2</sup> As a prerequisite to the writing of the thesis, Education 701 (a) or Education 701 (b) shall be completed, not as a lecture but as a seminar course without credit.
- (b) Four courses supplemented by comprehensive examinations; one in the minor, the others in the major field.
- (c) Candidates electing pattern IV or pattern V may qualify for the M.Ed. degree by obtaining credit in five courses supplemented by a comprehensive examination in the one particular school subject chosen for special study.

#### *Majors and Minors:*

Ordinarily three related courses constitute a major; two, a minor. Although majors and minors may, by regulations, be selected from different departments or areas of study within the Faculty, it is recommended that minors be chosen from senior Arts and Science courses, particularly if the M.Ed. program should follow Pattern IV or Pattern V.

#### *M.Ed. Programs and Required Standings:*

The table following the list of courses below gives for each of five patterns (a) prerequisites, (b) required courses, and (c) electives recommended though not required. Patterns IV and V are designed to meet the needs and interests of classroom teachers who wish to specialize in the methodology of one subject or area of teaching. M.Ed. programs other than those designated as Patterns I, II, III, IV and V may be arranged to meet individual needs but these must be planned in consultation with the Dean of the Faculty of Education.

The passing mark in all education courses is 50 per cent. To meet requirements for any diploma or degree, a candidate must attain an overall average of 60 per cent (Minutes of Faculty Council, September 23, 1955).

## **B.Ed. and M.Ed. Courses**

Philosophy 301 (Arts and Science)  
Psychology 203 (Arts and Science)  
Political Science 504 (Arts and Science)  
Sociology 401, 402 (Arts and Science)

Approved senior and graduate courses in Arts and Science in subjects of the school curriculum.

Ed. 501—Educational Psychology (prerequisite Psychology 203)  
Ed. 502—Psychology of Child Development (prerequisite Psychology 203)  
Ed. 503—Mental Health and Clinical Procedures in Elementary and Secondary Grades

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<sup>2</sup> Each thesis, when presented, must be accompanied by three copies of an abstract.



- Ed. 504—Mental Testing (prerequisite Psychology 203)
- Ed. 505—Achievement Testing
- Ed. 506—Elementary Statistics
- Ed. 509—Diagnostic and Remedial Techniques in Arithmetic, Spelling and Handwriting
- Ed. 510—Silent and Remedial Reading in Grade I to IX inclusive
- Ed. 511—Children's Literature
- Ed. 530—(a) Audio-Visual Education (b) Elementary Library Science
- Ed. 538—Adult Education
- Ed. 700—Contribution of Investigations and Research to the Teaching and Supervision of any one of the following Primary, Elementary and Secondary School Subjects

- |                      |                                  |
|----------------------|----------------------------------|
| A. English           | G. Music                         |
| B. Social Studies    | H. Kindergarten                  |
| C. Mathematics       | I. Health and Physical Education |
| D. Science           | J. Industrial Arts               |
| E. Foreign Languages | K. Home Economics                |
| F. Art               | L. Others                        |

- Ed. 702—Philosophy of Education (prerequisite Philosophy 301)
- Ed. 703—History of Education
- Ed. 704—History of Canadian Education
- Ed. 707—Psychology of Learning (prerequisite Education 501)
- Ed. 723—Educational Sociology
- Ed. 724—Psychology of Adolescence (prerequisite Psychology 203)
- Ed. 726—Psychology of Exceptional Children (prerequisite Psychology 203)
- Ed. 728—Guidance and Counselling in the Schools
- Ed. 729—Comparative Education
- Ed. 730—Principles and Practices of Curriculum Construction
- Ed. 731—Organization and Administration of Elementary and Secondary Schools
- Ed. 732—Methods of Educational Research (a) Experimental or (b) Documentary
- Ed. 733—Advanced Testing and Measurements (prerequisite Education 504, 505)
- Ed. 734—Advanced Statistics (prerequisite Education 506 and Elementary Calculus)
- Ed. 735—Educational Finance

## M.ED. PATTERNED PROGRAMS

Combined B.Ed. and M.Ed. programs (7, 8, or 9 courses)	PATTERN I History and Philosophy of Education	PATTERN II Educational Psychology	PATTERN III School Administration (2)	PATTERN IV Teaching and Supervision of Primary and Elementary Grade Subjects (1)	PATTERN V Teaching and Supervision of Secondary Grade Subjects (1)
Prerequisites to M.Ed. programs to be included in B.Ed. programs if not completed in undergraduate years.	Philosophy 301	Psychology 203	One of Political Science 504 Sociology 401 Sociology 402	Psychology 203	Psychology 203
Required subjects in combined B.Ed.-M.Ed. programs. Other combinations of courses may be selected if approval of the Faculty of Education is obtained in advance.	Ed. 702 Ed. 703 Ed. 729	Ed. 501 Ed. 504 Ed. 506 Ed. 707	Ed. 504 Ed. 505 Ed. 506 Ed. 708 Ed. 731	Ed. 501 Ed. 502 Ed. 504 Ed. 505 Ed. 700	Ed. 501 Ed. 504 Ed. 505 Ed. 700 Ed. 724
Electives of major relevance.	Ed. 704 Ed. 723	Ed. 502 Ed. 505 Ed. 509 Ed. 708 Ed. 709 Ed. 724 Ed. 726	Ed. 502 Ed. 509 Ed. 713 Ed. 727 Ed. 729 Ed. 730 An option from Pol. Science or Sociology	Ed. 506, Ed. 509, Ed. 510, Ed. 511, Ed. 530 (A second approved course under Ed. 700) Ed. 707, Ed. 723, Ed. 724, Ed. 726, Ed. 727, Ed. 728, Ed. 729, Ed. 730	Ed. 506, Ed. 707 (A second approved course under Ed. 700) Ed. 723, Ed. 729, Ed. 730

- (1) Teachers following M.Ed. Pattern IV or V are advised to include in their B.Ed. programs any Arts and Science courses which are likely to prove useful from the standpoint of teaching content.
- (2) Because they may not be offered at times convenient to students in the Faculty of Education, the prerequisites named are recommended, not required.

## M.Ed. Graduates for May, 1956

1. *Chidley, Nadine E.*  
"A Survey and Critical Analysis of the Special Education Program of the Winnipeg Public Schools."
2. *Kereluk, John*  
Comprehensive Examination
3. *Kochan, John M.*  
"A Study in the Prediction of Teaching Efficiency."
4. *Martin, James C.*  
"An Experimental Investigation of Two Methods of Teaching General Science in Junior High School."
5. *Smith, Isabelle B.*  
Comprehensive Examination

## M.Ed. Graduates for October, 1956

1. *Balawyder, Alex*  
"The Educational Philosophy of St. Jean-Baptiste de la Salle, The Founder of the Brothers of Christian Schools."
2. *Bothe, Franklin E.*  
"An Investigation of the Growth of the Function Concept Through Senior High School Mathematics."
3. *Chapple, Phoebe M.*  
Comprehensive Examination
4. *Corriveau, Arthur H.*  
Comprehensive Examination
5. *Starr, Arthur J.*  
Comprehensive Examination

## Expected M.Ed. Graduates for February, 1957

1. *Dotten, Victor S.*  
"A Five Year Case Study of 27 Accelerated Children."
2. *Rowe, Richard*  
Comprehensive Examination

# Students Registered in Education I, 1956-57

Enns, Henri J. ....	Senior Stick
Johnson, Norma O. ....	Lady Stick
Hasker, Bryant .....	Secretary-Treasurer
Laycock, Marjorie .....	U.M.S.U. Representative
Finch, Helen .....	W.A. Representative
Couchman, Angela .....	Women's Athletics
Borowski, Frank .....	Men's Athletics
Delaliaux, Lucille .....	Drama Representative
McLeod, Betty .....	Brown and Gold Representative
Zelech, Ramin R. ....	Social Representative
Mann, Edward .....	Debating

Atwell, George  
 Ayre, Florence  
 Bart, Eileen  
 Beaulieu, Lucienne  
 Bergeron, Leandre  
 Berthaudin, Valentine  
 Blue, Hugh  
 Borowski, Frank  
 Brown, D. Raymond  
 Cooper, J. Keith  
 Copps, Yvonne  
 Couchman, Angela  
 Daniels, Jack  
 Davidow, Edythe  
 Delaliaux, Lucille  
 Duerksen, Jake  
 Ellis, Patricia  
 Enns, Henri  
 Ferries, June-Anne  
 Finch, Helen  
 Grosney, Shirley  
 Hadfield, Donald  
 Hezzelwood, Constance  
 Hardy, Genevieve  
 Hasker, Bryant  
 Henrikson, Paul  
 Hiebert, Jacob  
 Hyde, Nick  
 Isaak, Peter  
 Jasper, Heather

Johnson, Norma  
 Kelsall, Anne  
 Kemp, Arthur  
 LaBarge, Lucille  
 Labinowich, Edward P.  
 Lanham, Richard  
 Laycock, Marjorie  
 Luffman, Esther  
 Mann, Edward  
 McLeod, Betty  
 Morrison, Mary  
 Peech, Nicholas  
 Pawlyshyn, Donna  
 Podborochynski, Eugenie  
 Prefontaine, Paul  
 Robinson, Richard J.  
 Roslycky, Olga  
 Rupp, John  
 Sheehan, Cecilia  
 Shewchuk, Alex  
 Sicotte, Paulette  
 Sigurdson, Conrad  
 Skene, Reginald R.  
 Staska, Willard  
 Sugden, Leonard W.  
 Toth, Father S. J.  
 Wieler, Frederic  
 Wise, Esther  
 Zelech, Ramin

## Summer Session Staff: 1957

Hour	Subject	Instructor
8:40- 10:30	Ed. 228—The School in the Social Order in Modern Times	To be arranged.
	Ed. 506—Elementary Statistics	Dr. J. Bicknell—New York State Dept. of Education
	Ed. 707—Psychology of Learning	Dr. W. H. Lucow
	Ed. 728—Guidance and Counselling in the Schools	Dr. R. Barry—Director of Guidance, Santa Barbara, California
	Ed. 729—Principles and Practices of Curriculum Construction	Dr. J. M. Brown
10:40 12:30	Ed. 501—Educational Psychology	Dr. Helen Prouty—San Diego State College of Education
	Ed. 700—Arithmetic	Dean M. E. LaZerte
	Ed. 700—Secondary School English	Dr. Eleanor Boyce
1:40- 3:30	Ed. 503—Mental Health and Clinical Procedures	Dr. R. Barry
	Ed. 509—Diagnostic and Remedial Techniques	Miss Doris Baker
	Ed. 702—Philosophy of Education	Dr. J. Bicknell
	Ed. 724—Psychology of Adolescence	Dr. Helen Prouty



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